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H. W. FAIRBANKS

THE JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY

A MAGAZINE FOR TEACHERS

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The JOURNAL *of* GEOGRAPHY

VOLUME XVIII MAY, 1919 NUMBER 5

PROGRESS IN THE BELGIAN CONGO

It is little more than 40 years ago that Stanley made known to the world the great hydrographic system of the Congo and declared the possibilities of the area drained by it. In spite of the hardships of that first journey down the mighty river he could state with conviction that this country "excels all other known lands for the number and variety of precious gifts with which Nature has endowed it." Recent developments in the Congo go to justify Stanley's opinion.

The Congo Basin

The Congo Basin is a vast depression girdled around by heights save northwards where the watershed between the Congo and the Lake Chad drainage is an insignificant feature. On the west a rugged worn plateau forms the wall that so long shut off the Congo Basin from European penetration, for the river highway cuts through it by an impassable gate. Southward the basin is rimmed by plateaus 4,000 to 5,000 feet high. On the east the rim culminates in lofty ranges whose greatest peaks, exceeding 18,000 feet in elevation, are snow-capped. The greater part of the geographical basin, some 900,000 square miles in extent, belongs to that political unit of unique history, the Belgian Congo.

The Equatorial Forest

A large part, though by no means the whole, of the basin is occupied by equatorial forest, and so far it is the primeval forest that has dominated the life and relations of the country. The first economic products to come out of the Congo were ivory and slaves, the latter in part as a by-product of the former, for slaves of necessity supplied the means of transportation.

With the advent of the Europeans came the exploitation of rubber, a typical economic product of the primeval equatorial forest, and with the rubber came notoriety. It now seems probable that the reports of Congo atrocities were exaggerated, but that they did occur under the régime of the great rubber companies is an unfortunate characteristic of the conditions under which this form of commercial exploitation is apt to be carried on in its early stages. They have been repeated in the rubber regions of the Amazon, similarly remote from the restraining hand of civilization. Since the annexation of the "Congo Free State" by Belgium in 1908 the state has sincerely endeavored to carry into effect the wise and humane aims originally laid down for the administration of this area. And concomitantly with this endeavor the state has made great progress on sound economic lines.

To return to the subject of rubber in the Congo. This product attained its maximum output during the boom year of 1910. Since then it has declined in relative importance. The crisis following the boom, and the war with its extraordinary demand for oils and fats, have lately diverted attention to the oil palm, perhaps the most valuable asset of the Congo.

The oil palm is scattered by tens of millions in clusters, groves, and forests over nearly the whole of the colony, not being restricted as on the Guinea coast to a belt within limited range of the seaboard. The tonnage export of palm nuts for 1913 was trebled in 1916, during which year the colony supplied the ammunition plants of the Allies with 22,390 tons of palm nuts, 3,850 tons of palm oil, and 3,047 tons of rubber. These products with gum copal, a resinous substance dug up in the marshy regions of the central districts, form the only important vegetable products on the export list of today. Economic development of the colony has not yet proceeded far enough for profitable handling of the valuable woods and fibrous materials of the forest.

AGRICULTURE

But despite the riches of the forest it is probably in agriculture that the chief future of the country lies. The possibilities before the planter are suggested by the luxuriance in their natural state of many of the most valuable plants, indigenous and introduced

alike. It is worth noting that many of the plants that now seem an integral part of the Central African flora are of South American origin and have only been domiciled in Africa since the Portu-

FIG. 1—Equatorial Rain Forest in the northeastern section of the Belgian Congo. This type of forest covers a considerable part of the Congo Basin.

This and the following photographs illustrating the article were taken during the Congo Expedition of the American Museum of Natural History, New York, 1909-1919, by H. Lang. They are reproduced by permission of the Museum.

guese opened up relations between the two continents. This is the case with manioc, now the staple native foodstuff over the greater part of the Congo Basin, the sweet potato, the pineapple, and to-

bacco. Introduced into the coast regions these products have now spread over the interior.

The planter has been aided by the agricultural experiment stations created when the country came under state control. The economic cultivation of such products as cacao, coffee, tea, sugar, tobacco, sisal-hemp, pineapple, and banana is assured; while plantation rubber will supplement the wild forms. In places free from the tsetse fly cattle raising is proving successful. At one of the stations (Api) taming of the African elephant is being tested with encouraging results. A short description of this station is given by Du Plessis in his interesting book "Thrice across the Dark Continent."

Special attention is now being given to the encouragement of native agriculture. Experts have studied conditions in Uganda, the Sudan, and other African areas and have carried their researches so far afield as to make a study of the agricultural education of colored people in the United States. A measure has been passed to compel the natives to work on their own cultivations at least five days of the month. It is however stated that there has been no need to enforce the law, for the native in general has sufficient intelligence to see his own advantage in the matter. Since 1916 the natives have planted several million oil palms, have produced 20,000 tons of rice—most of which previously had to be imported, and 600 tons of very fair cotton.

KATANGA, "A WHITE MAN'S COUNTRY"

In the extreme southeastern corner of the Congo we find agriculture assuming a different character. Differences are suggested by the change in the natural vegetation: equatorial forest is replaced by savana; the open woods are carpeted with a herbaceous growth. The change is that from a region of constant humidity to one with a long dry season. Here too we feel the effect not only of greater distance from the equator but also of increased elevation—4,000 to 5,000 feet. The dry season coincides with a cooler season when night temperatures are low and frosts are of not infrequent occurrence. Many tropical cultivations are ruled out; on the other hand wheat can be grown here. There are already in Katanga a few Belgian farmers, true colonists, but the success of subtropical and temperate zone farming can hardly be said to

be established. The highly mineralized soil is of poor quality; the winter drought presents difficulties, though actual experiment suggests that they may be overcome by irrigation. A great inducement to progress lies in the rapid opening up of the region in consequence of the magnet of mineral wealth.

MINERAL WEALTH

The much fractured Katanga plateaus are rich in mineral deposits. A well-defined belt of country north of the Congo-Zambesi

FIG. 2—Many species of palm are found in the Belgian Congo. This is the *Borassus* palm characteristic of the more open country (savana) of the Lower Congo. Photograph by H. Lang.

watershed is veined with copper ore of high quality. The total deposit is known to be very large, one of the largest in the world. Even if it does not equal in extent the enormous mass of Chuquicamata in Chile it yields ore of far higher grade. Output has increased rapidly; from a little over 7,000 tons in 1913 it had risen to 22,000 tons in 1916, and 100,000 tons is the anticipated output by 1925. Work has also been begun on the more recently discovered tin deposits, from which a first shipment has lately been sent to Europe. Iron ore exists in quantity in Upper Katanga, and coal is reported from the lower division of the province.

Besides the minerals of Katanga, gold in the northeast and

alluvial diamond deposits in the upper Kasai are being worked on a commercial scale, and we have reports of great iron resources along the Welle river and other mineral indications in a country where prospecting has only just begun.

Population of the Congo

This natural wealth would be of no avail without human energy to turn it to account. No complete census of the Congo has ever been taken, but the most commonly accepted estimate places the population figure at about 15,000,000. It is often stated that the territory of the Belgian Congo is now less populous than it was before coming under European rule. There have however been both losses and gains, and it should be remembered in considering apparent evidences of depopulation that some tribes are, or until recently were, habitually nomadic while the primitive native method of cultivation with its rapid exhaustion of the soil also imposes a certain nomadism upon agriculture. Undoubtedly contact with the white man, by producing sudden changes in the native mode of life, has caused at least a temporary drop in population. Havoc has been worked by introduced diseases and even more by the spread of endemic diseases through the extensive movements accompanying the opening up of the region. A notorious instance is sleeping sickness, a disease transmitted to man by the tsetse fly. The government of the Belgian Congo, like other governments of Central Africa, is taking preventive measures to combat this dread disease.

On the other hand European rule has freed the Congo natives from the Arab slave raids and from intertribal wars; and poison ordeals, cannibalism, and hemp smoking have been practically stamped out. Mechanical means of transport are replacing the hardships of porterage; and better conditions of food, housing, and clothing have been introduced. If on balancing the factors of gain and loss the unfavorable elements have so far predominated, we may assume that the scale has now turned and that a steady increase of the native population may be confidently expected.

Natives and Foreigners

The natives of the Congo include different races and types. They range from the shy, wild pygmies of the great forests, rep-

resentatives of the most primitive Negro stock, to the tall, long-legged Nilotic Negro, a type influenced long ago by the peoples of the Nile valley. The infinite number of tribes show very unequal degrees of civilization and hence of economic possibilities. Some have considerable proficiency in the arts of weaving and pottery; others show hardly any trace even of the most rudimentary civilization. A remarkable aptitude for learning the trades of the white man is not rare, and valuable services are being rendered by the

FIG. 3—Mangbetu village amid groves of oil palms. The Mangbetu are an intelligent people living in the Welle district of the northeastern Congo. Their mechanical skill and artistic taste is shown in the neat grass-roofed huts whose clay walls are decorated in red, white and black designs. Photograph by H. Lang.

natives as mechanics, engine drivers, clerks, typists, printers, and telegraph operators. For an example of devoted and loyal service one may note the conduct of the native forces in the campaign against former German East Africa.

The authority of the state is now so well established that the trader and even the tax collector may safely travel unarmed and unescorted anywhere throughout the colony. The whole country is open to missionaries, and there is complete freedom of creed and teaching. The mission stations exceed 160 in number, and outside of them several hundred native assistants are spreading

Christianity and elementary secular instruction. About 500,000 children are attending these schools of which there are three special ones for the sons of chiefs.

Arab and East Indian traders and craftsmen are coming into the country from the Sudan and Uganda. The desirability of this movement has been questioned; but, whatever the ultimate effect, it must be admitted that the intermediate character of their civilization renders it more adaptable to the capacity of the natives than does that of the white man. Moreover these people can thrive where the white man can only maintain a temporary residence. Though the dangers of the earlier days in the equatorial regions of the Congo have been greatly diminished it can never be a permanent home for the white man. There are however areas in the country where white colonization would seem to be possible. Katanga has already been mentioned, and there is also the wonderful mountain country west of Lakes Albert and Edward of which the chief drawback, inaccessibility, will some day be remedied.

COMMUNICATIONS

A navigable fluvial artery, to which converge long equally navigable tributaries, makes, as much as any spontaneous riches, for the prosperity of a country. In this respect the Congo is unusually favored. The main river has a total length of over 2,300 miles, and the volume of water it discharges is second only to that of the Amazon. Two thousand miles from its mouth it is still 1,000 feet broad. The great breadth, characteristic of the upper courses of all the waterways of the system, is associated naturally with shallowness. The steamers of the Upper Congo do not exceed 3 feet draught and are of the familiar stern wheel type; such can ply as far as Bukama, 2,200 miles from the mouth of the river. Unfortunately, unlike the case of the Amazon, falls and rapids on the Congo break the continuity of navigation. Where on the Amazon ocean-going vessels reach Iquitos, 2,350 miles up the river, on the Congo they can go no farther than Matadi, 90 miles from the mouth of the river, above which commences the 250 mile stretch of rapids by which the Congo breaks through the western plateau. The need of circumventing the rapids led to construction of the first railroad in the country, the narrow-gauge line that connects

FIG. 4.

FIG. 5.

FIG. 4—Navigation on the rivers of the Congo Basin, the great natural highways of the country, is unfortunately interrupted in places by falls and rapids. This illustration shows a part of the Panga Falls on the Aruwimi River which enters the Congo some distance below Stanleyville. Ivory and rubber brought down in large quantities by canoe must be unloaded and carried round the falls. Photograph by H. Lang.

FIG. 5—Progress in the Belgian Congo: the railroad terminus at Matadi. By this narrow gauge line, 247 miles long, is carried every pound of merchandise that goes into the interior. Photograph by H. Lang.

Stanley Pool with Matadi. The rapids (Stanley Falls) which terminate at Stanleyville are avoided by a line 83 miles long while still farther up stream there is the section from Kindu to Kabolo 222 miles long.

TRANS-CONTINENTAL ROADS

Obviously one of the most important questions of transportation must relate to the mineral-producing region of Katanga. Katanga occupies almost the exact center of the continent south of the Sahara. It lies not far south of the meeting point of the great north-south and east-west transcontinental roads. The steam route across Africa from west to east was completed in 1915. It makes use of the Congo River and its supplementary railroads described above. The river is connected with Lake Tanganyika by rail from Kabolo to Albertville; from the east shore of the lake a line runs through the center of former German East Africa to the port of Dar es Salaam. Though the north-south route is not quite completed the first Cape-to-Cairo time-table has been worked out (*Commerce Repts.*, March 7, 1918). Of its 6,000 odd miles there are only 350 miles, in two stretches, which cannot be covered by rail or steamer, and the entire journey can be made in a minimum of 60 days. From Lake Tanganyika the route makes use of the Albertville-Kabolo line, whence in 7 days by steamer one reaches Bukama—now terminus of the through railroad to Cape Town. The section in Katanga has been pushed forward very rapidly under the stimulus of the fast developing mineral resources. It will be seen then that Katanga is already in communication with three great African ports—with Boma at the Congo mouth, with Dar es Salaam on the Indian Ocean, and with Cape Town; we can also add Beira, for there is rail connection through Rhodesia with this thriving port of Portuguese East Africa. A line is also under way from Lobito in Angola that will give Katanga comparatively short and direct communication with the Atlantic.

Nor are other means of communication—roads, telegraphs—being neglected. The state-built roads now aggregate over 5,600 miles in length, and during the war nearly 1,250 miles of telegraph line have been constructed—in the heart of Africa.

The final word in this short survey must be emphasis on the progress made during the war: it is a remarkable tribute to the indomitable spirit of Belgium.

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H. H. Johnston: George Grenfell and the Congo, 2 vols., London, 1908. With this study of one of the Congo's most distinguished explorers is incorporated the most complete geographical description (in English) of the Congo Basin.

T. G. Bartholomew: The Advanced Atlas of Physical and Political Geography, Oxford University Press, 1917. $3.80. It is hardly necessary to say that the above article can only be studied in conjunction with the map. The physical maps in this new and indispensable Bartholomew Atlas are excellent for this purpose.

A PAGEANT OF THE EARTH

By CAROLINE W. HOTCHKISS
Horace Mann School, New York

It is not necessary in this day of grace to take up the cudgels in defense of a school pageant. The more highly organized, however, a school or community is, the more it needs the social awakening that the working out of such a pageant or festival brings. It is hoped that the following account of a geography pageant which was given a few years ago by the Horace Mann Elementary School will interest teachers in other schools and tempt them to undertake a similar co-operative effort.

This pageant presents the earth in its various aspects, physical, political, and social. The program follows:

PROCESSIONAL
Elementary School

MARCH OF THE MERIDIANS AND PARALLELS
Boys of Grades V and VI

Part I—The Spirit of Nature

SONG—"The Blossom of the Year" (Air, "Gathering Peascods")
Grades IV to VII

MARCH—Darkness, Moon, Clouds, Wind, Water, Ice, Snow, Rain, Lightning, Thunder, Sun, Summer Clouds, Sunbeams, and Blossoming Earth
Girls of Grade VII assisted by Kindergarten and Grades I, II, and III

SONG—"Spring" (1740)

Part II—The Spirit of Life

A. Along the Meridians

1. IN THE NORTHLAND: ESKIMO VILLAGE
Song, ice cutting, harpoon throwing, seal fishing, dance
Grade I

2. IN THE TEMPERATE LANDS: INDIAN SYMBOLIC DANCE
Taking place at night after the corn planting
Grade II

3. IN THE HOT COUNTRIES: BEDOUIN DANCE
Boys of Grade VII

4. FOLK SONGS OF THE NATIONS: Russian, French, Bohemian, American
Elementary School

B. Among the Parallels

1. SCENE ON THE NORWEGIAN COAST
(Spirit of Adventure)
Women on shore engaged in home industries; children playing games; fishing fleets seen in the distance; fishermen coming ashore, their return celebrated by a general merrymaking
Grade V

2. DUTCH DANCE
Open Air Classes

3. JAPANESE CHERRY FESTIVAL
(Spirit of Art)
Adoration of the blossoms, games, tea drinking, song
Grade III

4. AT THE COURT OF SPAIN
(Spirit of Discovery)
Scene i —Columbus pleading before Queen Isabella
Scene ii —Return of Columbus after the voyage
Scene iii—Celebration by the populace
Grade IV

5. SCENE AT RUNNYMEDE
(Spirit of Liberty)
Signing of Magna Charta. Characters: King, Archbishop, Barons, Squires, Churchmen
Boys of Grade VI

6. THE UNITED STATES
(Spirit of Democracy)
March of the States
Girls of Grade VI

Part III—The World Spirit

TABLEAU
RECITATION—"Hymn of Brotherhood" (Addington Symonds)
SONG—"America"

RECESSIONAL

This pageant represented the co-operative effort of the entire Elementary School and was the outgrowth of regular grade activities. The marches and dances were worked out by the department of physical education; the songs by the music department; and the costumes by the departments of industrial and decorative arts. The decorative work was designed by the pupils under the supervision of the art department. The dialogues were written as class exercises and represent the combined effort of the classes by which they were given.

The Symbolic Idea

The many-sided aspects of geography work and the almost inexhaustible variety of the content of the subject offered a wealth of material for vivid picture and stirring action; yet it was realized at an early stage in the preparations that the varied scenes could be made effective parts of a great whole only by keeping close to the symbolic idea. The older pupils, at least, had learned to associate with each nation or race certain qualities and characteristics. First it had to be decided what the chief spiritual characteristic was, then the problem was to represent it. To make certain that this idea was conveyed to the audience, it was decided that figures symbolic of the spirit of each country should stand on a raised central dais and that the action should proceed around it.

The "Mise-en-Scène"

The pageant took place in the large gymnasium of Teachers College, the audience being seated around the sides of the room and in the running track above. The children entered marching in costume and passed to places previously assigned to them on the floor just inside the rows of spectators. This left the center of the room free for the action of the various scenes and for the raised platform on which the symbolic figures were to stand.

With scarcely a moment's pause after the school was seated the music changed to a military air, and the Meridians and Parallels filed in headed by the North Pole in a glistening white robe. He took his place on the raised center of the dais while the Arctic Circle, in white robes and skull caps faced with ermine, formed a circle around him. On came the Temperate Zone, a ring of rich green; then followed the red and yellow circle of the Equator. Round and round the Pole these Parallels revolved; then at a signal the rotating body reversed and resolved itself into radiating lines. Shoulder to shoulder the Meridians marched like the spokes of a wheel, then the picture was dissolved and the boys passed to their places.

Scenes of Nature

The spring song carried the audience to the quiet contemplation of "The Spirit of Nature."

Soft slow music drew masses of gray clouds to one corner of

the "stage" while the somber figures of Darkness moved toward the center. The Clouds broke up into groups, the young Moon running lightly back and forth among them. A rustle was heard; and Wind, holding wide her floating scarfs of lavender and gray, blew the Clouds back as Moon and Darkness grouped themselves on the dais. Then came a movement like running water. A chain of girls in filmy folds of blue and gray moved across the floor. The

The Japanese Cherry Festival.

River curved and fretted its banks till the music called out the majestic figure of Ice. In obedience to her compelling gesture the River sank at her feet frozen and still. Then by two's and three's there skipped out little snowflakes. The Wind blew them into a swirling dance. The Clouds grew stormy, and with a crash of thunder Lightning hurled herself among them. Soft dropping notes of melody brought out Rain, shadowy creatures in blue and gray. They pelted the River, bringing it to life. Then on the eastern side appeared a dazzling group—a blazing Sun with his attendant Beams. As the Sun took his place in the center of the grouped figures on the dais the Beams beckoned to a group of fairies. They shook their butterfly wings and turned to masses

of spring flowers crouching beside them. Rising at the call, the whole group—Flowers, Fairies, Sunbeams—joined in a mad revel around the forces of Nature while the school burst into the glad song,

Flocks are bleating, rocks repeating,
Valleys echo back the sound;
Dancing, singing, piping, springing,
Naught but mirth and joy go round.

SCENES OF HUMAN LIFE

After this four heralds made ready for the first episode of "The Spirit of Life," and immediately a group of little folk took possession of the floor. So completely metamorphosed were they in their gray furry garments that the fondest parent could hardly identify his offspring. Some crawled into the igloos, others cut ice blocks, others tended babies. "Ei-ya, Ei-ya," they called and gathered in a group for a strange little song. Then four Eskimo mothers seated themselves on the dais and with slow swaying movements went through a religious dance.

When this was finished a loud monotonous rhythm called out an imposing group. A young Indian brave followed by six gayly bedecked warriors crossed the floor. Stern in demeanor, with arms folded high across the breast, they stood upon the dais; the tall lithe figure was in the center, two warriors were on each point of the triangular platform, and the band of men and squaws in festal array formed a ring around them to invoke a blessing on the cornfields. How solemnly they drew the furrow and sowed the seed! How fervently they lifted their arms in supplication to the Great Spirit! In the hush that followed one felt the involuntary response of the audience to this dramatic appeal.

This mood, however, was quickly dispelled by stirring music that brought to their feet with a bound forty or more Bedouins of the desert. For a brief moment this striking group in white burnoose, red sash, bare legs, and yellow sandals stood motionless; then with a wild dash they swung into their places. Back and forth in groups of eight they ran, saluting and stamping, ending each round with a haughty tossing aside of the cloak and a vigorous raising of the clenched fist, and the quickened pulses of the audience found vent in a storm of applause.

SPECIAL EPISODES: BEAUTY AND FREEDOM

Because of limited space only two or three of the episodes that followed can be described. Those which seemed the most distinctive are selected.

The Cherry Festival was made ready by placing three large cherry trees in full bloom in the prows of the dais. This became the "shrine of beauty" for Kwannon, the goddess of mercy and protection. She seated herself under the pink boughs, silent and serene, her finger lifted in rapt contemplation, her simple garment by its purity setting her apart from the gay world about her. What a kaleidoscope of color the little Orientals made! Several groups spread down their mats, took teacups from the folds of their kimonos, and went through the ceremony of tea drinking. Others with the shuffling step of the grown-up Japanese strolled about admiring the cherry blossoms and greeting friends. Then there appeared two coolies running before a jinrikisha in which was seated a lady of rank. As the "rickshaw" made its exit, the merrymakers sang their national hymn,

> May our Lord's dominion last
> Till a thousand years are passed.

A sudden blast from a bugle shifted the attention of the audience to the west door of the gymnasium, and in a moment the present with its familiar surroundings was swept away. There lay the field of Runnymede, and on it gathered fast and furious a throng of grim-visaged Knights armed cap-a-pie in corselet and helmet, shield and sword. Doughty Squires carried brilliant blue banners, and the Archbishop in his scarlet robe was accompanied by Churchmen and Barons. If the determined group struck terror into the heart of King John who faced them in regal state, he did not betray it as he haughtily demanded why he had thus been summoned from the hunt. But as the angry Barons told off the list of his tyrannies and exactions, and as the Archbishop interrupted his protest with, "Peace, your Majesty, the time has come when we must speak and you must hear," the cowardly King trembled and put his seal to the great Charter. Had nothing else in the unfolding of this pageant convinced the sceptic of its educative value, the complete absorption of the actors in the spirit of that historic scene would have set all doubts at rest.

BROTHERHOOD AND DEMOCRACY

The last of the cuirassed Knights and the waving banners left the floor, but the memory of that medieval picture became all the more significant as ringing martial music ushered in the March of the States. A little ahead of the yellow and white procession walked the Spirit of Brotherhood carrying in her hand the beautiful peace flag. Behind her came the Spirit of Democracy, three girls in yellow and white, bearing various United States banners. They took their places on the prows of the dais with Brotherhood high in the center; then around them filed the forty-eight States, a lovely vision of girlish figures carrying branches of goldenrod and still further illustrating *E Pluribus Unum* by the distinctness with which the name of each state was pricked out in the gold band around the head. At the close of the march they divided into two groups, one on either side of the dais, forming the letters U. S. Kneeling for an instant they lifted the goldenrod high in salute and passed from this striking tableau into the form of a hollow square just inside the rows of expectant children.

At a signal the school rose as one body and all races and nations of the earth passed within this encircling wall of Democracy, grouping themselves around the central dominating figures. While all eyes were drawn to the towering peace flag, the symbol of that fraternity which is the hope of the world, there came this ringing prophecy from the Spirit of Brotherhood,

> Nation with nation, land with land
> Unarmed shall live as comrades free;
> In every heart and brain shall throb
> The pulse of one fraternity.

Then, moved as by a common impulse, the audience rose and joined the school in "America." Thus was the climax of the pageant reached. Out of the square the children passed to their schoolrooms, the tableau in the center still holding all together, until at length the group descended, first Brotherhood, then Democracy, then the heralds. The earth pageant was over, but the memories and the enthusiasms it created still remain.

WHAT THE WAR SHOULD DO FOR OUR METHODS IN GEOGRAPHY*

By J. PAUL GOODE
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This great war, more than any other war in history, has focused the world's attention upon the map. Every nation has been involved, some at grips with death; and even the remotest neutral nation has paid tribute to the Kaiser in unsettled markets and ruined enterprises. In America these disturbing influences have been marked. We have been keenly alert to every phase of the great conflict. We have watched its course day by day from Tsing Tao to the Falkland Islands and then to the Skagerrak; the fighting in Togo, the Cameroons, Damaraland, and East Africa; the tragedies of Mesopotamia, Palestine, and Armenia; the varying flood of events on the Italian front; in Rumania; on the front in France, from St. Mihiel to Flanders; and on the long eastern front from Riga to Odessa. We have learned of the heroism and dramatic travels of the 80,000 Czecho-Slovaks, and their deathless glory in their desperate ventures in the cause of freedom. And now we are watching the birth of a flock of little republics, most of whose very names were unknown to the mass of Americans four years ago. Our sons and brothers from every community in our broad land have gone by the million into the service, in various parts of Europe and Asia, getting geography at first hand and writing home innumerable letters from places heretofore unheard of by their families.

THE LESSON OF THE MAP

So suddenly has our attention been demanded for all four quarters of the earth, and so ignorant are most of us in geography, that our newspapers early found that the most valuable bit of news they could publish was a map, which would put before the reader's eye the location of the event chronicled. All the magazines have learned the same good lesson, and even the most staid and sober of the literary magazines, which has always in dignified

*An address at the general session of the Superintendents' Meeting of the National Education Association at Auditorium theater, Chicago, February 27, 1919.

superiority kept its pages free from illustrations, has followed suit in these years with maps.

Our navy shares with Britain in the rule of the seas. Our shipbuilding program looks to the future. We built last year almost 3,000,000 tons of shipping and are building now at the rate of 2,000,000 tons a year. Our lads are still enlisting for naval service, and a half million of them soon will be finding themselves in all the ports of the world; we at home shall be keeping track of them and learning lessons in place geography in the most natural and effective way.

OUR WORLD POSITION IN COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

As far back as 1890 our country "reached its majority" in the matter of foreign trade. Manufactures and commerce have grown vastly since then, and for the past two years the total value of our foreign trade has passed the mark of $9,000,000,000. We are far and away the greatest nation on earth in foreign trade, and we are only beginning to grow. When we stop to think that our country has over one-half of all the known coal in the world and is producing almost one-half of the world's iron, three-fourths of the world's copper, two-thirds of the world's petroleum, and two-thirds of the world's cotton—and this is only the beginning of a long list of advantages we claim as ours—we can see plainly that our manifest destiny is to do the manufacturing for half the world and to assume presently the responsibility for half the world's foreign commerce.

All this should make it as plain as a pikestaff that we are not to be permitted longer to remain a provincial people. We must look over the horizon and learn the geography of other lands. We must see to it that all our children get this general acquaintance with the world at large. Since we are the world's greatest commercial nation, we cannot escape the call for a large and general development of commercial geography—the study of the geographic principles underlying the production of the raw materials of commerce and the distribution of these materials in the markets of the world. It is an inspiration to see that the government, in making, through the Federal Board for Vocational Education, a careful canvass of what education is essential for the development

of our industry and commerce, is discovering geography, and especially commercial geography, to be an indispensable element in all such preparation.

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Now comes the conclusion of the war, when the victors are working out the details of a league of nations which shall make it forever impossible for the world to be drawn again into a general war, and we find ourselves as a nation, because of the great advantages bestowed upon us, facing the prospect of bearing a large proportion of the responsibilities of the league, of sharing in policing the world, and of seeing to it that every people, however small, shall be given its right to liberty and the pursuit of happiness. We shall possibly be called upon to act as sponsor to a number of small nations all over the earth and we are all going to take a patriotic pride in this business of assuring the "square deal" and, willy-nilly, we shall all be drilled still farther in geography.

As a nation we are distinctly above the horizon. We are very much in the family of nations. We may not play the rôle of recluse any longer, may not be provincial any more. Rapid transportation by steamboat and railway, the annihilation of space and time by telegraph and telephone, and our tremendous advance in foreign trade have made isolation and provincialism forevermore impossible. We *must* become good geographers and have a general acquaintance not only with our own country but also with the family of nations outside our own.

PRESENT STATUS OF GEOGRAPHICAL KNOWLEDGE

When we turn to our schools to ask what provision there is for all this general training, we find geography teaching at a low ebb. As a rule in the common schools geography is offered only in three or four years. In many schools the pupil is given no training in geography after the sixth grade. Even so, what teaching there is is often so poorly done that the pupil goes on into his life work with as near nothing in the way of geographic training as can be imagined. A generation ago some emphasis was put upon place geography, and the older men and women of today have some knowledge of the map to fall back upon as the horizon

of our daily interest takes us out into the world. But there came a protest against this drill on the map—this "sailor geography," and, without taking pains to inquire what was bad about it or how we might better do the part that was worth doing in place geography, we decided that it was easier to call it a bad name and drop it. With it we dropped nearly all interest in the subject. So far has this lack of interest in geography as a school subject carried us that we hardly expect an entering college student to know any geography at all. I have had in my own classes teachers of long standing in the schools of a great city, who could not even *name* half the states in the United States and who on a test in a hundred place names in general geography might get but thirteen to twenty of them right. Successful business men within my horizon have in the last two years been surprised to learn that the Ukraine is a region and not a breakfast food. One man interested in selling a product in Australia asked what part of South America Australia is in, anyway! A professor in a prominent eastern university could not answer the question "What is Milwaukee?"

RESPONSIBILITY OF THE TRAINING SCHOOLS

A very slight search for reasons for this general apathy, this evasion of the opportunity and duty of getting all the pupils of our schools well grounded in geography, shows that the study of geography for the purpose of teaching it is largely ignored in normal schools and other schools for the training of teachers. There are not many such schools where the subject has a fair share of the student teachers' time, or where competently trained instructors are given an opportunity for developing such training, or where instructors who have the training are given adequate equipment for a proper development of the science. There are normal schools of some standing, in which provision for training the young geography teacher is limited to one term or to one half year in the course; and then geography is but one of four or five subjects carried abreast. In many schools one or two years of Latin or German may be offered, and in some cases required of young people who are presently assigned by the principal to classes in geography. Some wit has pointed out that one of the greatest handicaps against the development of geography in our

schools is the fact that the geography text is printed in English. If it had a language of its own, or even a peculiar vocabulary, like Latin, or German, or chemistry, or domestic science, then some preliminary training for the teaching of it would be granted. As it is, it often happens that a young teacher who has not even been exposed to geography since the seventh or eighth grade, is required to teach a class, often with results which on the surface seem to warrant the principal or the school board in still further ignoring the subject.

WHAT THE WAR HAS SHOWN REGARDING GEOGRAPHY

What, then, has the war done toward indicating needed changes in our methods in geography? It has shown the absolute need of reorganizing the course of study in our schools, of bringing geography up to a par with English and arithmetic as an essential in the liberal education of all our children. It might be profitable to have some work in geography in every year in the grades. The war has shown the utter folly of expecting good geography teaching without providing for the adequate training of the young person who is expected later to teach the subject.

THREE ESSENTIAL COURSES

It is certain that, following all the work that can be done in the grades, there should be provided in the high school at least three separate units of work in geography, which might well occupy three terms or three half years: (1) the principles of geography, (2) commercial or economic geography, and (3) commercial countries.

The first of these units is an element of the highest significance in the liberal education of every student and might with perfect propriety be required as rigidly as a knowledge of common arithmetic. The second course, commercial geography, is of the largest value in opening up the horizon of the world's activities in industry and commerce. It should by all means be a part of the necessary general education of every boy or girl who is to go into the business world and as an element in a liberal education is of almost equal value with the course on principles just mentioned. The third course, commercial countries, would be offered late in the high school work. It might occupy a whole year with profit,

and it would be the beginning of special training leading to active commercial work in the business world.

NEED FOR EQUIPMENT

It is plain also that adequate teaching in geography calls for a generous equipment in globes, maps, atlases and other texts, and pictures such as photographs, stereographs, and lantern slides. It should be considered just as essential to have this material equipment for geography as to have a laboratory with reagents and apparatus for chemistry.

THE TEACHER AND THE PAY QUESTION

Finally, the whole question of teachers' pay should be opened up. A young person cannot afford to get the preparation necessary for doing good work in teaching, unless there is a decent living wage in prospect. There are many city schools in which the janitors are better paid than any of the teachers, where the plumber who comes to mend a leaky pipe is paid more than the principal of the school. That is because the janitors and the plumbers have unions and can demand a living wage. It might be a good plan for the teachers to form unions and play the game too. It is necessary that the teachers' pay should be sufficient to do a little more than merely buy clothes and pay board bills. It should be possible for a geography teacher to lay by a little, to travel a bit now and then out into the world, and to get at first hand some of the geographic relations and conditions he is teaching to his pupils. Under present conditions most of the able men and women avoid teaching and choose some other occupation where a better living is possible. Those who stay by are either missionaries, having an interest in the teaching and in the boys and girls and knowing that it is a good service, or they are the left-overs—the servants that are "worthy of the hire"—that is, the kind of product the school board bargains for with the salary offered. One is reminded of the honest Minnesota girl who, when some one railed at her for the quality of her teaching, replied, "Ah, it's little they pays me, and it's little I teaches thim!"

THE CALL OF THE NEW DAY

These are some of the larger needs which the world war has shown us. If we could only realize that geography is much more

than the knowledge of the map; that it is much more than industry and commerce; that it has for its special province the relations between men and the physical influences in which they live, the relation of all life to its physical environment; if we could get the vision that "modern geography is characterized by the search for truth in the field of science, and even more by the desire to render its truths of service to mankind; if we could only see that its subject matter touches the life and welfare of the human race more intimately and fundamentally than that of any other science; that geography possesses in itself high cultural and disciplinary value and contributes eminently to good citizenship," we should awake at the call of the new day and prepare our boys and girls for the new era now being ushered in. If we are wise, we shall examine our course of study carefully, throw out non-essentials, and elevate the science of geography to the proud place it deserves in the general education of the future American citizen.

A NEW DEFINITION OF GEOGRAPHY*

By H. W. FAIRBANKS,
Berkeley, Cal.

It has long been the writer's opinion that the subject of elementary school geography falls far short of accomplishing what it might accomplish—is in fact a practical failure. This he believes to be attributable partly to the obscurity that invests the whole matter of content and partly to the absurdities and inconsistencies involved in the methods of instruction commonly employed.

PRESENT STATE OF GEOGRAPHY

One cannot judge of the real condition of geography instruction by the excellent ideas now and then voiced by some progressive teacher in one of the educational journals. These articles

* This article should be compared with Professor Fenneman's Presidential Address to the Association of American Geographers, 1918, abstracted in the April number of the *Journal*. The trend of thought is essentially similar: Professor Fenneman speaks in more general terms. Dr. Fairbanks has the teaching of school geography especially in mind.—EDIT. NOTE.

have little in common with the practical application of the subject in the great majority of schools.

If, in the attempt to frame a clear conception of what school geography is commonly held to consist of, one were guided by the material presented in the textbooks in use and by the courses of study of the leading city and practice schools in the United States, one would be forced to the conclusion that the subject consists of a little of everything which cannot conveniently be placed elsewhere. And one could scarcely be blamed for agreeing with G. Stanley Hall who, some years ago, said that geography is a hodgepodge of all the sciences and should be split up and its materials placed in their appropriate departments.

At the present time, with the ever-growing struggle among new subjects for a place in the curriculum, there is no longer room for a conglomerate geography. The tendency of late has been to cut down the time given to the subject in the upper grammar grades, owing doubtless to its questionable value as compared with other subjects.

NEED OF REFORM

Two fundamental conditions appear to be accountable for the present lamentable situation. The first is that very few, if any, teachers have a clear idea of the real nature of geography. Floating round in their minds is a vague, indefinite notion of geography as a study of the earth and man; but if they were asked just what should be placed in the geography course and what should be excluded from it, no two of them, we may be sure, would be found in agreement. The second of the causes referred to is the nearly universal failure to organize the work along the lines, or to use the methods, which a sound pedagogy demands.

Now is the time of all times when we need to introduce into school geography a universal viewpoint. Our country is coming into more intimate contact with other lands and peoples than ever before. We need to make geography more real and vital in order that the children now growing up may be able to take their parts intelligently in the new community of nations.

In the present article the writer purposes to offer a new definition of geography—one which he hopes will avoid the pitfalls of the older definitions and will carry further the modern conception

that geography is not a study or memorizing of *facts,* but a study of the *relations* existing among facts. In a later article he will consider some of the other reasons for the failure of school geography.

Geography was formerly held to be the science which treats of the earth as the home of man. Its methods were almost wholly descriptive. It lacked a unifying principle, and its boundaries were indistinct.

More recently geography has been defined in much the same manner as before, except that the idea of cause and effect has gradually grown in importance. Modern geography places less emphasis upon mere statements of facts about the earth and man, and more upon the relations existing among these facts. However, it exhibits little more unity or coherence than did the old geography. Owing to a wrong point of view the inner unity through which facts become geographic is not fully realized.

THE NEW GEOGRAPHY[1]

The new conception of the subject does not admit that an enumeration of facts about the earth, or a mere description of them, constitutes true geography. Facts thus presented are held to be mere matters of information. The new view holds that there are no facts or phenomena which are the exclusive property of geography. The subject has, therefore, a different basis from all other branches of learning except philosophy. The study of nature shows that no fact or phenomenon exists by itself independent of or unconditioned by others.

(1) Every phenomenon may be studied from the point of view of its own inherent properties, for which purpose it is isolated as far as possible from its associations. This method of approach gives us the various sciences.

(2) Every phenomenon may be studied from the point of view of the relationship which exists between it and other phenomena. This synthetic study of phenomena as they occur in nature is the only true approach to the study of geography.

The point from which we view a fact or phenomenon determines, then, whether or not it should be included in a geographic

[1] *Western Journ. of Education,* April, 1918.

discussion. Isolation of any phenomenon for the purpose of study takes it out of its natural relationship or environment. This causes its geographic aspect to disappear, and it becomes material for one of the other sciences.

TRUE GEOGRAPHY

True geography is, then, an attempt to explain the phenomena of the material world in their natural relations or settings.

Since all the phenomena of the physical world are more or less mutually conditioned, working together to make the world as we know it and having while in this relationship different significance than when isolated, we may consider the world as an organism with functioning parts. The full significance of an organism can be understood only when it is alive and its parts are performing their natural functions. When it is destroyed and its parts are separated, it ceases to be an organism. The study of the world as a living organism is the proper province of geography. Since the materials of geography include all phenomena in their natural or world relations, we may therefore define geography as *the science which seeks to understand the world as a living organism.*

SEAPORTS—A STUDY, ILLUSTRATED BY LOS ANGELES

By JEHIEL S. DAVIS
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A harbor may be defined as a haven for ships which does not necessarily include a town. A port is a commercial landing place (a point where goods are transshipped from land to sea or *vice versa*), a city or town usually including a harbor. Mollendo, Peru, is a port without what is usually understood as a harbor for it is a commercial landing place with no haven, and goods must be lightered to the ships. Even in this case, it should be noted, a small island offers a certain amount of shelter to shipping. This natural feature, slight as it is, calls to mind the invidiousness

of the customary classification of harbors as *natural* and *artificial*. All harbors, no matter how good, must be improved at some cost; but the better the harbor, the less the expense necessary to put it in shape to handle the commerce of the region. And few harbors have ever been built where there were no natural advantages. Even Chicago, where all the harbor works had to be made or dredged, offered a natural landing place for the canoe trade of early days.

Types of Harbors

Harbors are formed in various ways, most of them originating in a variety of causes (1). In nearly all cases, however, one important cause stands out and may be used as a means of classification. Thus we may recognize eight kinds of harbors—four main types, one of which has five variations (2). They may be listed as follows:

I. *River harbors,* including harbors along the erosion channel, as Portland, Ore., or on the delta, as New Orleans.

II. *Harbors produced by submergence,* e.g. Baltimore and other harbors on Chesapeake Bay.

III. *Fiord harbors,* produced by glacial erosion, e.g. Seattle, and Vancouver, B. C.

IV. *Barrier harbors,* embracing the varieties:

1. Sand bar and lagoon harbors, e.g. Galveston and San Diego.
2. Structural barrier harbors, e.g. Los Angeles.
3. Coral barrier harbors, including the type due to a barrier reef, as Honolulu, or an atoll, as Rotoava, Low Archipelago.
4. Volcanic barrier harbors, e.g. Pago Pago, Samoa.
5. Glacial island barrier harbors, e.g. Boston.

In several cases, however, a harbor cannot be put in a single category. New York's fine harbor is due partly to sinking, though it is also a combination of river and glacial island barrier harbor. San Francisco and Rio de Janeiro are partly structural barrier harbors, partly the result of submergence.

Ideal Features of a Harbor

The type does not determine the value of the harbor as a port. A useful standard of measurement for gaging such value may be obtained by listing the chief features of the ideal harbor.

These may be conveniently set down as follows, the first nine points referring to the harbor, the last three to the port:

1. Protection from wind and wave
2. Depth (from 28 to 300 feet)
3. Anchorage room and bottom
4. Freedom from shifting sand
5. Freedom from ice
6. Freedom from strong or high (over 12 or 14 feet) tides
7. Freedom from fog
8. Ease of wharfage construction
9. Accessibility
10. Connection with a rich back country
11. Nearness to ocean routes
12. Nearness to world markets

How the Los Angeles Harbor Meets This Ideal

In illustration of the use of this standard let us measure the Los Angeles harbor by it (3). Los Angeles is selected because it is desirable to clear up misrepresentation of the harbor as artificial and because conditions are interesting and not yet generally known. In fact, although nearly perfect, the harbor has only recently been recognized as good.

Protection from wind and wave at Los Angeles is excellent. The harbor is sheltered from the transoceanic roll and the westerly winds by San Pedro Hills to the west and Santa Catalina Island to the southwest. The government engineers saw that the natural advantages were great enough to make it worth while supplementing them with an 11,000-foot breakwater. This increases the size of the well-sheltered outer basin and in the extremely rare case of a gale directly from the south keeps the roll out of the entrance to the channel. This is the only case in which the hills are not adequate: indeed the protection is much better than it need be in a climate so free from high wind.

The depth of the harbor is in no part too great. In the outer basin there are some 360 acres of water over 26 feet deep, while the municipal docks have a 34-foot depth in front of them. The inner harbor is from 20 to 34 feet deep and is 20,000 by 200 feet in size with a turning basin 1,600 feet in diameter. Any additional room which may be needed in the distant future can be had by a single dredging of soft sand.

The sand bottom holds an anchor well. As the Los Angeles River empties to the east, as there is no river emptying through the harbor, and as the tide is only about six feet, there is no shifting sand. There is of course no ice, and in this uniform

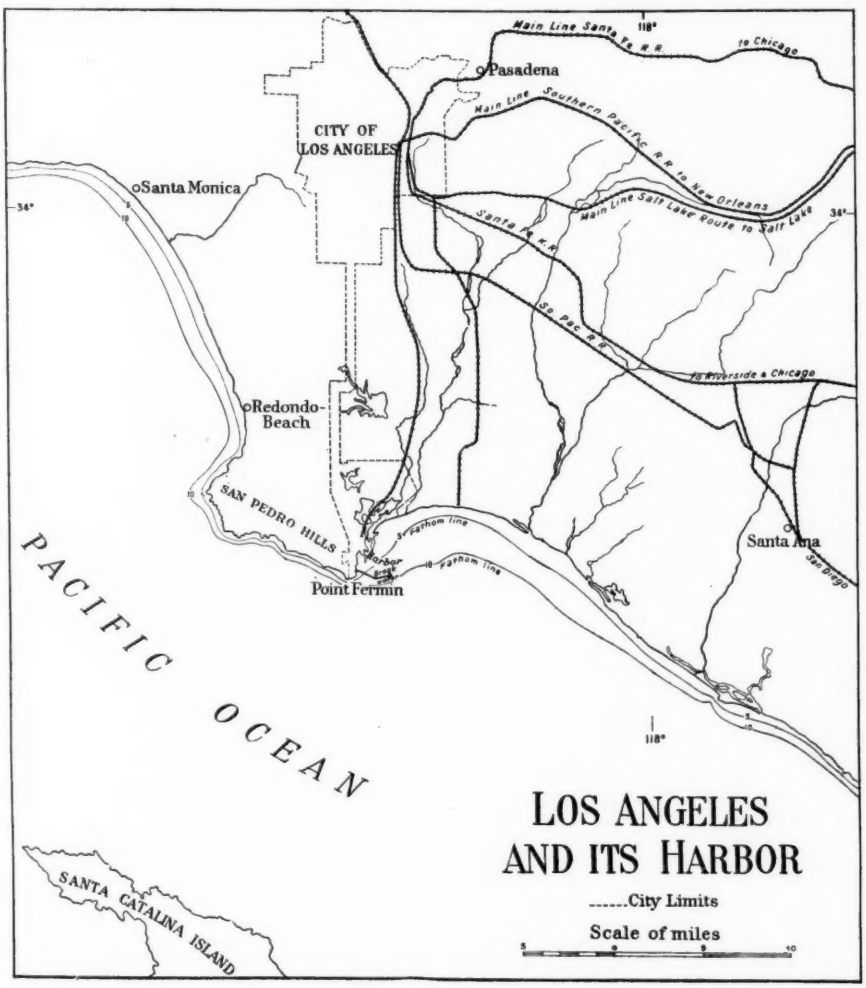

FIG. 1—Sketch map to illustrate advantageous features of the harbor of Los Angeles. Scale, approximately 1:700,000.

climate fog is rare. Nowhere can docks be more easily built, as pile driving is simply a process of pushing the tree trunks down with the aid of a fire hose into the hard sand, which sets around and holds the pile like cement as soon as the water jet is withdrawn. The entrance to the harbor is over 36 feet deep for a width of 2,000 feet and is close to the open sea, so that any steamer

afloat, no matter how large, can make the port with its own pilot in any kind of weather and tie up to the municipal docks in twenty minutes from the open sea.

Rich as the back country of Los Angeles is, here is a harbor fitted to serve a greater one. The valley close to Los Angeles is not as large as that close to San Francisco, but the character of its products and the location of its oil deposits render it richer acre for acre. The passes through the mountains are low and easy, giving fine access to the country further back where are rich mineral resources as yet scarcely touched. Considerable deposits of iron ore, for example, are known to exist in the mountains northeast of Los Angeles.

It has already been pointed out how close the harbor is to coastwise trade routes. This coastwise trade, already important, is fast growing as trade increases between South America and the west coast of the United States. As regards ocean trade the port is nearer to the Panama Canal and South America than are other western United States ports except San Diego, which is inferior in other points. Los Angeles is farther from Alaska, and a little farther from Japan, than are the ports to the north of it, but it is almost the same distance from Hawaii and Sydney and is nearer to practically all of the South Sea Islands. As regards the interior it is nearer Salt Lake City than any other seaport and is reached over easier grades than San Francisco, which is almost as near. It is nearer to Chicago by rail than are other Pacific ports except Seattle, which is only 31 miles nearer over a route hampered by snow much oftener than the route to Los Angeles. Connection with the Gulf of Mexico region by rail is through a land of little or no snow and over easy grades.

Thus in all twelve respects Los Angeles is an almost perfect harbor. These conditions explain why the city is forging so rapidly ahead of ports whose greatness was won earlier and under other conditions.

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(2) Consult appropriate sheets of the U. S. Geol. Survey topographical maps. A list of harbor maps for use in physical and commercial geography was given in the article "Laboratory Equipment for High School Work in Physical Geography" by E. F. Bean in the *Journal*, Vol. 11, 1912-13, pp. 82-85. It should, however, be noted that the price of individual sheets is now 10 cents. Maps can be obtained from the Director of the U. S. Geological Survey, Washington, D. C. The charts of U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey should also be noted.

(3) Ann. Rept. Board of Harbor Commissioners, 1915-1916, Port of Los Angeles.

THREE "PROBLEM" PORTS OF EUROPE: DANZIG, TRIESTE, FIUME

A line drawn across Europe from the neighborhood of Danzig —Königsberg to Trieste—Fiume approximately separates the continent into western and eastern halves. Westward for the most part states and nationalities coincide; eastward development of true national states has been retarded and this is one of the causes and issues of the war. The majority of the population of Europe on this eastern side of the dividing line is Slavonic. The western limit of Slavonic peoples may be said to be broadly coincident with the line; they occupy continental as opposed to peninsular Europe.

The northern and southern ends of the line have provided two of the most difficult problems of the peace conference—Danzig and Fiume. In either case there is clash of interests between peoples of continental and peninsular Europe. As Mackinder well describes it, it is a typical opposition between the coast veneer of a maritime people upon the continental background of an inland people. The continental mass of the Balkans is Slavic with an Italian veneer on the Adriatic shores; a Greek veneer on the Aegean shores; and we have the problems of Trieste and Fiume and Salonica respectively. On the Baltic there is a German veneer on a Slavonic mass and we have the problem of Danzig.

DANZIG

The Polish branch of the Slavonic peoples occupies the Vistula basin. The gentle depression forming the greater part of the basin is a meeting ground of routes. East and west the basin con-

nects the broad Russian plain with the narrowed plain of northern Germany. With the Dniester the Vistula forms a great highway uniting the Black Sea and the Baltic. But the circumstances that have conferred on the Vistula Basin exceptional importance as a distributing center and highway for transit trade have likewise exposed the country to attack. As a state Poland succumbed to this exposure in 1795. But the national feeling remained and Poland is now to be restored.

Economically the new Polish state should be well equipped to maintain an independent existence. Agriculture is favored by the fertility of the soil and flatness of the land. At one time, indeed, Poland was known as the granary of Europe. In the south the restored Poland will probably include important deposits of coal and iron. In textile and other manufactures the country has an established position. For these resources—the grain, coal, timber, sugar, chemical products, textiles—it is necessary to find an outlet. The natural outlet is Danzig on the western arm of the Vistula delta, the head of navigation for ocean going vessels. But a German veneer cuts ethnographic Poland from the sea. Ever since Danzig figured as one of the great cities of the Hanseatic League the town has had a dominant German element. Today the Polish element forms about 10 per cent only of the town population. Here is an ethnic bar to a natural economic current.

TRIESTE AND FIUME

The opposing shores of the Adriatic present the most striking contrasts in coastal forms. In the northern part on the Italian side an alluvial plain is ever advancing seawards; the ports of its delta and lagoon coast are continually being choked geographically and economically. Farther south though the Apennines swing to the Adriatic the coast is featureless. From Venice to Brindisi is no spot suitable for a naval base. On the eastern side of the Adriatic the Dinaric ranges drop sharply into the sea forming a remarkable series of deep-water bays and gulfs. But the mountain wall cuts off the coast from the interior. Historically, poverty, isolation and shelter have been reflected in the recurring piracy that has characterized the Dalmatian coasts. Venetian occupation of these coasts was largely a combative measure for the safe-

guarding of trade. At the same time the historical influence of the western coast on the eastern was greatly encouraged by their common Mediterranean characteristics exemplified in the vine and olive cultivation, a cultivation quite distinct from that of the continental mass of the Balkan peninsula. Today on the eastern coast of the Adriatic we find a civilization of Italian flavor and in the population a sprinkling of Italians, concentrated to a majority in a few of the chief towns.

The change between the coast types of west and east takes place about the Gulf of Trieste where the Adriatic penetrates farthest into the continental mass. This point is coincident with the juncture between the Eastern Alps and the Dinarics, a juncture where the continuous mountain barrier is narrowed and more easily crossed. Thus Trieste is a focus of roads—from the plain of northern Italy, southern Germany and the plain of lower Austria and the Hungarian plain.

Trieste is not naturally favored as a harbor; the coastal strip at the foot of the barren Carso is extremely narrow and though the gulf is somewhat sheltered from the *sirocco* of the south it is fully exposed to the fierce *bora* from the north. The importance of Trieste as a port is due to the work expended on it because of its relation to the trade of central and southern Europe. This is well seen in the growth of the port trade since the building of the railroads connecting with Vienna and Budapest and especially since the recent opening of the line giving direct connection with southern Germany. Before the war the great proportion of the extensive trade of Trieste, the first port of the Adriatic, was to and from Austria-Hungary; the shipping was almost entirely in Austrian hands; the port works had been carried out by the Austrian government. The immediate hinterland, representing the northwesterly extension of the Yugo-Slavs, is Slovene. But in culture and population the town is related to the opposite shore; about three-quarters of Trieste's 220,000 people are Italian.

Fiume is somewhat similarly situated on the eastern side of the Istrian peninsula. Like Trieste the excellence of the port is due to modern industry and its recent prosperity to rail connection with a hinterland of growing economic importance. Fiume is the outlet for the timber of Carniola and Croatia and the grain

of the Hungarian plain. It is also notable as an emigrant port for America. The culture of the town is Italian: but the ethnic claim of Italy to Fiume is far weaker than in the case of Trieste. Though about half or more of the 50,000 people in town proper are Italian, addition of the suburb of Sušak gives a Slavic majority. On the economic side there is no question of the need of the hinterland for this, the one commercially valuable Dalmatian port.

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Base Map Pamphlets. No. 2, The Adriatic Question (January, 1919); No. 3, Poland (March, 1919). Amer. Geogr. Soc., New York. These pamphlets are designed for use with the Society's series of Base Maps.

EXTENSION WORK IN GEOGRAPHY

It may be of interest to teachers of geography to know something of the work that is being done in this branch among Iowa teachers through the Extension Division of the Iowa State Teachers College. Three types of work are being carried on at present—non-credit or general work, credit courses, and consultation work. It is the purpose of this paper to treat only of the first.

The general or non-credit work is done on Saturdays. A corps of 107 instructors enables the Extension Division to offer a great variety of subjects—practically all the public school branches and in addition didactics, psychology, school management, and some others.

During the summer the Director of Extension travels through the state and meets every county superintendent. Each county superintendent selects, from the program offered for the year, the

subjects and the instructors he desires, usually planning for two to six meetings for his county. These meetings are held at the county seat or at any town which can be conveniently reached by his teachers. In some counties the railroad arrangement is such that there is no one town which can be reached by all the teachers. This problem of transportation is one of the greatest obstacles to the highest success of the work.

The meetings are held not oftener than once a month from September to April. The day's program begins at half-past nine in the morning, and a two-hour session is held followed by two hours in the afternoon. The group of teachers is usually divided into two sections, rural teachers and town (graded) teachers, because their problems are slightly different and because it is the aim of the college to fit the instruction as closely as possible to the immediate needs of teachers in service. Two instructors are sent from the staff to each study center. Each instructor meets the grade section twice and the rural section twice during the day.

The geography work for the past few years has been given by four instructors. Last year instruction in this subject was given in 57 study centers whose attendance aggregated 3,200. This means that 3,200 teachers at work in the town and rural schools of the state listened to the presentation of some phase of geography for at least two hours. To those accustomed to thinking only in terms of intensive training this may seem a paltry effort—a useless expenditure of time, energy, and money; but there is another viewpoint. Many of these teachers have never had a single day's special instruction in geography since the time they left the seventh grade. Many more have heard nothing of the newer conceptions and aims of geography teaching. All of them, inasmuch as they are meeting their classes daily, know what their needs are far better than they did when they were studying the subject for themselves before they began to teach. The need for instruction is so great that even a little help, given to those who know what they want for the next week's work, is of great value.

The following program for one Saturday's meeting will give a more definite idea of the plan. These programs are generally sent out by the county superintendent to his teachers a week or two in advance.

Study Center Meeting. Held at .....
December 7, 1918.

9:30	Town	Section	Didactics	Mr. .....
"	Rural	"	Motivation in Geography	Miss .....
10:30	Rural	"	Didactics	Mr. .....
"	Town	"	Geography, Teaching the Globe and Map	Miss .....
1:30	Town	"	Didactics	Mr. .....
"	Rural	"	Geography, Some Problems in Iowa Geography	Miss .....
2:30	Town	"	Geography, Use of the Text Book	Miss .....
"	Rural	"	Didactics	Mr. .....

The form under which the instruction is given varies. Some of the instructors prefer to use the lecture method, others to teach a lesson as it would be developed by a teacher with her class. Still others, especially those who teach primary work, prefer to have a class of children and teach them in presence of the section.

ALISON E. AITCHISON

CORRESPONDENCE

The Editor welcomes suggestions and discussions on matters regarding the *Journal*.

To the Editor of the Journal of Geography.

As the *Journal of Geography* is a "Magazine for Teachers" and as teachers of geography are presumably interested in discussing the statements made in the articles appearing in the *Journal* allow me to offer some comments on the "Criticisms and Suggestions" regarding methods of teaching geography by Lieut. Whitehouse in the March number.

In the section headed "Dangers in Generalizations" the author himself makes a venturesome generalization to the effect that "Geometry, climatology, geology, geomorphology are none of them geography" (p. 101). Must we accept that assertion? If climatology is not a part of geography, what in the world is it! Lieut. Whitehouse may have had the unfortunate experience of being taught "more or less practical climatology, with more generalizations and a big mass of matter to unteach when the higher stages were reached"; but this revelation of bad work on the part of his teacher should not be accepted as evidence against the truly geographical nature of climatology when it is well taught.

The author's peculiar view of geomorphology may be inferred from the sentence:—"We had geomorphological concepts with conflicting theories, simplified for school use but retaining an awe-inspiring vocabulary" (p. 101). Here again, poor teaching appears to be the ground for excluding from geography one of its most essential chapters; for geomorphology is nothing but an unnecessarily learned name for the more advanced study of land forms; that is, for a part of the long familiar subject of physical geography, without which as a foundation, all the rest of geography would float vaguely upon a void.

As to the explanatory element of geomorphology, shall we omit all interpretation of such features as coast forms? Should the teacher of geography in central France, whose school may be within sight of certain little conical mountains in Auvergne, avoid making mention of those interesting landmarks as the results of volcanic eruption in prehistoric times? May he not even venture to point out to the older scholars that the forms of the volcanoes vary with their age; some of them are so young as to retain their crater rims and lava flows, little affected by weathering, while others are old enough to be worn down to mere residuals of their former mass? Similarly, may not the teachers in central Massachusetts, in west-central New York and in southeastern Wisconsin call attention to the rounded elliptical hills of unconsolidated drift which characterise these districts, and even give some account of their origin in order better to impart their characteristics, always with due regard to the mental stage of the pupils.

I should like to learn the opinions of American teachers in the matter thus presented by Lieut. Whitehouse. My supposition is that, while many of our teachers of geography have found little time for the teaching of land forms under the subject of commercial geography, which has come to be popular in high schools in recent years, they nevertheless recognize that the study of land forms—whether it is called geomorphology or not—is an essential part of the total content of geography. Furthermore I believe that any competent teacher of a relatively advanced class in commercial, historical or other kind of geography, who proposes to give special attention to his own state, must without fail base all his later progress on an experienced knowledge of its surface forms.

W. M. DAVIS.

Cambridge, Mass., March 11, 1919.

SUMMER SESSION COURSES IN GEOGRAPHY, 1919

The following is a list of courses in geography to be given in the summer session of the educational institutions from whom reports have been received. It has not been found practicable to include courses of geographical affiliation given in other departments. From the standpoint of the teacher of geography such courses are invaluable for the creation of a new and broadened view of the subject. Special reference should be made to geographically related courses in history, economics, anthropology, sociology. Most institutions are giving courses dealing with causes and issues of the war and problems of reconstruction. Community civics and Americanization are also receiving much attention.

University of Alabama. University (June 5–July 16).
General Geography [course for teachers in the public schools].
Mr. H. C. McDonald, Chilton County High School, Clanton, Ala.

California State Normal School, Chico. Summer session held in Sisson, California, at the foot of Mt. Shasta (June 23–July 31).
Methods in Geography.
Other courses in geography, of which details are not given, are described as specially designed for teachers of intermediate work. Mr. C. K. Studley.

University of California, Berkeley. Summer session held in Los Angeles, Calif. (June 30–August 9).
Map and Field Study of Physiography. Assoc. Prof. R. S. Holway.
Influence of Geographic Environment on Man and his Work [based primarily upon a study of the United States and Europe]. Assoc. Prof. R. S. Holway.

University of Southern California, Los Angeles (June 30–August 8).
Methods of Teaching Geography. Dr. H. W. Fairbanks, Berkeley, Calif.
Geography of California. Dr. H. W. Fairbanks.
The New Map of the World. Dr. H. W. Fairbanks.

University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. (June 16–July 23; July 24–August 29).
Physiography. Prof. R. D. Salisbury.
Mineral Resources of the United States. Prof. J. J. Runner, South Dakota School of Mines.
Geographic Geology. Prof. R. D. Salisbury.
Continental Evolution. Prof. R. D. Salisbury.
The Elements of Geography. Mr. C. J. Bollinger.
Economic and Commercial Geography. Asst. Prof. C. C. Colby.
Geography of North America. Asst. Prof. C. C. Colby.
Influence of Geography on American History. Prof. H. H. Barrows.
Conservation of Natural Resources. Prof. H. H. Barrows.
Research Work. Advanced work on selected topics. Profs. R. D. Salisbury and H. H. Barrows and Asst. Prof. C. C. Colby.
Field Geography [region studied will be southwestern Wisconsin]. Asst. Prof. W. D. Jones. An advanced field course may be given in the month of September.
Physiographic Ecology. Dr. G. D. Fuller.
Fundamentals of Geography for Elementary School Teachers [field trips included]. Assoc. Prof. Zonia Baber.
Methods of Teaching Primary Geography. Assoc. Prof. Zonia Baber.
Geography in the Grammar Grades: North America. Assoc. Prof. Zonia Baber.
The Supervision of Geography in the Elementary School. Assoc. Prof. Zonia Baber.

Cleveland School of Education, Cleveland, Ohio (June 23–August 1).
Industries of Cleveland [intensive studies in the field]. Prof. W. M. Gregory.
Principles of Elementary School Geography. Miss Erna Grassmuck.
Problem Teaching in Geography. Miss Erna Grassmuck.
Demonstration Lessons in Elementary School Geography. Miss Erna Grassmuck.
Demonstrations Lessons in Junior High School Geography. Miss Olive Shaw.

Columbia University, New York City (July 7–August 15).
Mathematical Geography. Prof. H. Jacoby.
Physiography of the Western United States. Prof. E. M. Lehnerts.
Field Work in Physiography. Prof. E. M. Lehnerts.
Physical Geography and Its Economic Aspects. Prof. E. M. Lehnerts.
Commercial Geography. Dr. G. W. Edwards.
Economic Geography of International Trade. Prof. Snider.
Geography of Europe. Mr. F. K. Morris.
The Teaching of Geography in the Lower Grades (July 7-28). Prof. Calkins.
The Teaching of Geography in the Upper Grades (July 28–August 15). Prof. Calkins.
The Teaching of Regional Geography in the Junior High Schools (July 28–August 15). Prof. Calkins.
Geographical Relationships. Prof. Calkins.

Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. (July 5–August 15).
Physical Geography. Asst. Prof. O. D. von Engeln.
Commercial and Industrial Geography. Asst. Prof. O. D. von Engeln.
Methods of Teaching Geography in Elementary Schools. Prof. J. W. Hubbard, Massachusetts State Normal School, Worcester.
Physical Geography, Laboratory Course. Prof. J. W. Hubbard.
Geography and Geology, Field Course [Short local excursions; all-day excursions to Taughannock Gorge and Falls, Enfield Gorge and Falls and Connecticut Hill; longer excursions to Niagara Gorge and Falls, Watkins Glen. Asst. Prof. O. D. von Engeln and other members of the staff].

University of Georgia, Athens (June 30–August 2–22).
Geography Review. Miss Louise Johnson, South Georgia Normal College.
Elementary Geography [geography for the lower grades]. Miss Louise Johnson.
Advanced Geography [geography for the upper grades]. Miss Louise Johnson.
Economic Geography. Dean W. H. Bocock.
Issues of the Great War, the New Political and Linguistic Map of Europe. Dean W. H. Bocock.

Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. (July 1–August 9; August 11–September 13).
Physiographic Field Studies. Prof. W. W. Atwood.

Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill. (First Term, June 9–July 18; Second Term, July 21–August 27).
Home Geography [fourth year geography of the State Course of Study]. First Term. Miss Eunice Blackburn.
Intermediate Geography [fourth and fifth year geography]. Second Term. Mr. R. G. Buzzard.
Geography of North America [sixth grade geography]. First Term. Mr. R. H. Russell.
Geography of the Eastern Continents [eighth grade geography]. Both Terms. Mr. R. G. Buzzard.
Geography Method for Country Schools. First Term. Miss Eunice Blackburn.
Physical Geography. First Term. Mr. H. H. Russell.
Commercial Geography. First Term. Miss Eunice Blackburn.
Climatology. First Term. Mr. R. G. Buzzard.
Human Geography [basis for study of a continent applicable to State Course of Study from fifth to eighth years]. Second Term. Mr. R. G. Buzzard.

Northern Illinois State Normal School, Dekalb (June 23–August 1).
Elements of Geography. Mr. F. K. Branom, Chicago, Ill.
Human Geography. Mr. F. K. Branom.
Rural Geography [study of State Course in Geography]. Mr. F. K. Branom.

Indiana University, Bloomington (June 12–August 8).
Physical Geography. Mr. E. R. Cummins.
Economic Geography. Mr. E. R. Cummins and Mr. S. S. Visher.
The Teaching of Geography. Mr. B. J. Malott of Fort Wayne High School, Mr. E. E. Morley of Francis Joseph Reitz High School, Evansville, Mr. E. E. Ramsey of Bloomington Schools.

University of Iowa, Iowa City (June 16–August 30).
Physical Geography.
Commercial Geography.

Western Kentucky State Normal School, Bowling Green (June 16–July 25).
Method in Geography.
Economic Geography.
Meteorology.
Method in Geography in the Grades. Instructors: Miss Ella Jeffries and Mr. R. P. Green.

Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford University, Calif.
Physical Geography [especially adapted to the needs of teachers]. Prof. Bailey Willis.

Miami University, Oxford, Ohio. (Spring Term, May 12–June 20; First Summer Term, June 23–August 1; Second Summer Term, August 4–September 5).
Geography for Primary Grades. Spring and Summer Terms. Prof. W. R. McConnell.
Geography for Intermediate Grades. Summer Terms. Mr. W. R. McConnell.
Economic Geography. First Summer Term. Prof. W. R. McConnell.

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor (June 30–August 22).
Teachers' Course in Physiography. Asst. Prof. I. D. Scott.
Elementary Meteorology. Asst. Prof. I. D. Scott and assistant.
Geographic Influences [an introduction to the principles of modern geography]. Mr. Frostic and assistant.
Commercial Geography. Mr. Frostic and assistant.
Research and Special Work [in physiography, field geology and geography]. Asst. Prof. I. D. Scott and Mr. Frostic.

Central Michigan Normal School, Mount Pleasant (June 30–August 8).
Teachers' Course in Geography [subject matter and pedagogy of geography]. Mr. J. P. Carey.
Regional Geography [South America, Australia, Africa, Asia]. Mr. J. P. Carey.
Geography Special [principles, methods of teaching and course of study for geography in the rural school]. Mr. J. P. Carey.

Michigan State Normal School, Ypsilanti (June 30–August 8).
Geography [to meet demands of the new certification law]. Miss Mary Cawood.
Teachers' Geography [attempts to correct some of the gravest defects of current geographic doctrine]. Miss Mary Cawood and Miss Genevieve Clark.
Commercial Geography. Miss Genevieve Clark.
Consultation and Laboratory Work. Miss Mary Cawood.

Western State Normal School, Kalamazoo, Mich. (June 30–August 8).
General Geography, Part I. Miss Lucia Harrison.
General Geography, Part II. [continuation of Part I]. Mr. L. H. Wood.
Geography of Europe. Mr. L. H. Wood.
Geography of South America. Miss Lucia Harrison.
Commercial Geography. Mr. C. C. Wilcox, Kalamazoo High School.
Geography [course especially designed for teachers of rural schools and intermediate grades of city schools]. Mr. C. C. Wilcox.

State Normal School, Mankato, Minn. (June 23–August 1.)
Elementary Geography.
North America. Type study in regional geography.
Special Geography. [A course for individual students capable of doing independent work.] Instructors: Mr. G. J. Miller and Miss Selma Petrich.

University of Minnesota, Minneapolis (June 23–August 2).
Physiography. Prof. C. J. Posey.
Economic and Commercial Geography. Prof. C. J. Posey.

University of Missouri, Columbia (Spring and Summer Term, first half, April 24–June 19; second half, June 20–August 14).
General College Geography. Prof. E. B. Bransom.
Geography of North America. First half Term. Mr. S. T. Bratton.
Geographic Literature. Mr. S. T. Bratton; Prof. E. B. Bransom.
Geography of Missouri. Second half Term. Prof. E. B. Bransom.
Teaching of Geography. Second half Term. Prof. E. B. Bransom.

Missouri State Normal School, Cape Girardeau (Spring and Summer Term, April 21–August 8).
Physiography. Miss Nelle G. Hudson.
Physical Geography. Miss Nelle G. Hudson.
College Geography. Miss Nelle G. Hudson.
Methods in Geography. Miss Nelle G. Hudson.

University of Montana, Missoula (First Term, June 23–August 1; Second Term, August 4–September 5).
Physiography. First Term. Mr. R. A. Wilson.
Geography and Geology of Montana. First Term. Mr. R. A. Wilson.

University of Nebraska, Lincoln (June 2–July 25; July 28–August 22).
Physical Geography [for teachers in high schools]. Miss Esther Anderson.
Commercial and Industrial Geography. Miss Esther Anderson and Miss C. J. Nelson.
Problems of Presenting Geography in the Grades and Rural Schools. Miss C. J. Nelson.

Geography of Nebraska. Miss Esther Anderson.
Opportunity for graduate work in geography is offered by Dr. G. E. Condra.
Several conferences dealing especially with the problems of geography teaching will be conducted by Miss Nelson. Visual instruction will be a special feature.

University of Nevada, Reno (June 21–August 1?)
Geography Methods.

New Mexico Normal University, Las Vegas (June 5–July 31).
Physical Geography. Mr. R. S. Tipton and Mrs. Lou Cobb.

University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill (June 24–August 8).
Commercial and Industrial Geography. Professor Collier Cobb.
Teaching of Geography in the High School. Professor Collier Cobb.
Professor Cobb also offers the geography classes five illustrated lectures on the Geography of Latin America.

Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill. (June 23–August 23).
Physiography and Geology. Mr. J. R. Ball.
Physiography of the United States. Mr. J. R. Ball.

Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio (June 20–August 7).
Principles of Geography. Prof. G. D. Hubbard.

Ohio University and State Normal School, Athens (June 23–August 1).
Physiography. Prof. B. M. Thompson.
Physical Geography. Prof. B. M. Thompson.
Methods in Geography [a course for the primary grades].
Methods in Geography [a course for the grammar grades]. Prof. B. M. Thompson.

University of Oklahoma, Norman (June 7–August 5).
Physical Geography.
Physiography.
Economic Geography of North America.
Teachers' Course in Physiography.

George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn. (June 12–July 23; July 24–August 29).
Fundamentals of Regional Geography. Prof. A. E. Parkins.
Economic and Commercial Geography: United States. Mr. C. E. Marston, Allen School, Kansas City, Mo.
Economic and Commercial Geography: Foreign Countries. Mr. C. E. Marston.
Geography of Europe. Mr. C. E. Marston.
College Geology. Prof. A. E. Parkins.
Influence of Geography on American History. Prof. A. E. Parkins.
Seminar in Geography. Prof. A. E. Parkins.

Pennsylvania State College, State College (June 30–August 8).
Physical Geography. Prof. C. A. Bonine.
Teachers' Geography [relation between the physical geography and industrial enterprises of the United States]. Prof. C. A. Bonine.
Observation Courses in the Demonstration School: Geography and History in the Fifth and Sixth Grades. Geography and History in the Seventh and Eighth Grades. Miss Wert.
The Department of Geography also offers field trips and a weekly conference on High School Methods in Geography.

Rhode Island Normal School, Providence (July 7–August 15).
Advanced Geography. Mr. R. M. Brown.
Methods in Geography (fourth to eighth grades]. Mr. R. M. Brown.

Rutgers College and State University of New Jersey, New Brunswick (June 30–August 8).
Methods of Teaching Geography in the Elementary School. Miss Bertha R. Kain, State Normal School, Newark.

Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y. (July 5–August 15).
History and Geography of the South American Republics. Prof. A. S. Patterson.

University of Texas, Austin. (First Term, June 10–July 22; Second Term, July 22–August 30.)
General Geology: An Introduction to Science [including geographical study of Texas]. Prof. F. W. Simonds and Miss Florence Gill.
Physical Geography. Principal E. G. Littlejohn, Alamo School, Galveston.
Descriptive Geography. Principal E. G. Littlejohn.

University of Utah, Salt Lake City (First Term, June 10–July 23; Second Term, July 25–August 30).
Methods of Teaching Geography in the Primary Grades.
Methods of Teaching Geography in the Grammar Grades. Miss Anna Youngberg.

Valparaiso University, Valparaiso, Ind. (June 3–August 14).
Descriptive Geography for Advanced Students [review course for teachers].

University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Va. (June 23–August 2; August 4–September 6).
Physical Geography.
Industrial Geography.
Field and Laboratory Work in Geography.
Methods in Geography.

University of Washington, Seattle (June 17–August 29).
College Physiography, Asst. Prof. E. J. Saunders.
Physiography of the United States. Asst. Prof. E. J. Saunders.
Modern Geography. Asst. Prof. E. J. Saunders.

West Virginia University, Morgantown (June 24–September 12).
Physical Geography. Prof. S. B. Brown.
Geology of West Virginia. Prof. S. B. Brown.

University of Wisconsin, Madison (June 30–August 8).
Elements of Physiography and Geography. Mr. W. O. Blanchard.
Commercial and Industrial Geography. Prof. R. H. Whitbeck.
Advanced Economic Geography. Mr. W. O. Blanchard.
Geographical Seminar on Transportation. Prof. R. H. Whitbeck.
Geography of Europe. Prof. R. H. Whitbeck.
Geography of South America. Mr. W. O. Blanchard.
Geography of North America. Miss Genivera Loft.
Weather and Climate. Mr. Eric Miller.
Climatology. Mr. Eric Miller.
Teachers Course in High School Geography, including Physical and Commercial. Miss Genivera Loft.
Excursions are made to the Driftless Area, Baraboo Range, Dells of the Wisconsin River, Blue Mounds of southwestern Wisconsin and other localities.

University of Wyoming, Laramie (June 23–August 1).
Regional Geography [North America]. Miss W. E. Wheeler, Public Schools, Lazear, Colorado.
Advanced Methods in Geography. Miss W. E. Wheeler.

NOTICE

As announced on the inside front cover of the magazine the *Journal* will not be published during the months of June, July and August. The next number will be that for September. Subscriptions expiring at the close of the school year should be renewed early to ensure the printing of a sufficiently large edition.